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ABSTRACT

This report contains case studies from six countries on local efforts to ease the transition of youth from school to work and to stop or prevent them from regressing to semiliteracy or illiteracy. The countries studied are Canada, Mexico, the United Kingdom, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, Yugoslavia, and Zimbabwe. A short summary of each of the case studies is also provided along with an action agenda for municipal decision makers. The document concludes that there are general lessons that are apparent from the projects studied, and a number of these are about a question of universal significance: how to improve the relevance and effectiveness of programs with resources that are limited. The 10 suggestions to municipal officials include: (1) being prepared to respond to the ideas of organizations working with the young; (2) encouraging existing groups; (3) ensuring a full understanding of the need by preliminary research; (4) continuing support; (5) building networks of people and organizations; (6) making clear statements of aims and objectives; (7) developing styles and structures that encourage maximum participation by youth; (8) enabling disadvantaged youth to become a more effective part of the labor circuit through the existing educational system; (9) identifying resources; and (10) modeling projects after successful local ones while maintaining as much local control as possible. (21 references) (KC)

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Employment-Oriented Educational Programmes for Disadvantaged Youth: a Memo to Municipal Decision-Makers

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Division of Primary Education, Literacy and Adult Education, and Education in Rural Areas

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Unesco

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PREFACE

On August 1st 1419, an official of the French government registered in Paris his last will and testament. By it, he left, among other things, to his nephew's son (one Thévenin) whom he "has had taught at his own expense the trades of shoemaking and drapery : ten francs... the best of his jackets with all its fur... and his own copy of The Tale of Alexander so that /the youth/ might frolic and learn to read." Young men and women reaching the working age with insufficient 3-R and/or vocational skills are not a recent phenomenon.

What is relatively new, and particularly worrysome, is the widespread recognition that large numbers of young people in both industrialised and developing countries are leaving school and not finding work, and are as a result losing/ forgetting a good part of the skills they have acquired. Many, indeed, relapse into semi-literacy if not total illiteracy.

The causes of this problem have been a subject of often heated debate. Increasingly, however, governments, parents, industry, non-governmental organisations and young people themselves are turning their attention to the search for solutions. This study has been issued by Unesco as a contribution to that search in compliance with the Organisation's Approved Programmes and Budgets for 1984-1985 and 1986-1987.

As is apparent from the General Bibliography provided at the end of this volume, the difficult transition from school to work has been the subject of numerous studies and proposals for more than two decades. Most of these have, however, adopted a macro-view dealing with the issue from the standpoint of global national or even international policies. The tenacious nature of the problem, and the consequent frustration of many agencies concerned, has led the Secretariat to adopt an opposite yet complementary approach : "How," this booklet asks, "is the problem experienced, viewed and - above all - treated at the local level ?"

To help find an answer, the Secretariat requested the non-profit and internationally known Centre for Employment Initiatives (UK)

to (1) prepare brief and readable case studies on significant and innovative local employment-oriented educational projects and programmes conducted in the early 1980s in six countries which, whatever their differences (and they are fairly representative of the world's diversity), share a common awareness of the school/work transition problem and a common determination to overcome it by appealing to grass-roots (decentralised town, neighbourhood, village) educational initiative, and (2) summarise its findings in a practical, action-oriented "Memorandum" to municipal decision-makers of various kinds.*)

Readers may, in fact, wish to begin by looking at the "Conclusions and Pointers" - including the "Memorandum" itself - found at the end of this study. Having had a first look at the document's pith, they could then delve into one, several or all of the case studies, in function of their particular situations, interests - and responsibilities.

In both case studies and conclusions, the document makes clear that, no matter how significant or innovative, local educational initiative is no magic formula, offers no guarantee of providing foolproof bridges from school to work. On the other hand, it is equally evident in what follows that such local initiative can be successful, can in fact (when successful) be generalised from the local to the national levels, and does thus offer an avenue for further, fruitful exploration by all concerned. This may perhaps be particularly true when the initiative stems from - or is at very last largely shared/managed by young people themselves ; one factor of success does seem to be the presence of youthful commitment and verve, akin in spirit to the "frolic" young Master Thévenin's 15th century benefactor wished to bestow on him while he learned how to read.

Unesco Secretariat

*) The opinions stated below do not, therefore, necessarily reflect Unesco's own policies.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

The majority of the studies which make up this report are based on material contributed to the Centre for Employment Initiatives by the persons named below.

Each contributor was sent an outline (or grid) of points which it was hoped would be covered in each study. In some cases, points in this outline were irrelevant or inapplicable to the specific project described. In virtually all cases the contributors found it impossible to limit their studies to the few pages which were proposed. Staff of the Centre for Employment Initiatives, who were responsible for compiling and editing the material, therefore had to shorten the contributions, in some cases drastically. Inevitably in this process it is possible that injustice may have been done to the original text, which as it now stands may contain errors or omissions. These studies are therefore not the responsibility of the contributors, but of the editors.

It is hoped, however, that the studies still reflect the original and innovative approaches which are being made at the local level in different countries. The examples chosen represent a broad geographical distribution and a range of differing political, social and economic systems. Most of them describe how local people, supported by the authorities in their particular community, town or province, have responded to the specific situation of young people: in many cases they involve a major participatory role being played by the young people themselves in planning and implementing the projects.

The setting in which the innovative action is being taken also varies from country to country. Thus, the Yugoslav study describes a special centre established within the school system; the Mexican programme, while linked to the national educational secretariat, is focused on the economic activities of young people after they have left school; the study from Zimbabwe relates to the special efforts needed to make up for the loss of educational experience by young people who were involved in their country's war of liberation. A similar motivation is discernible in the study from the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, but it is concerned with remedial education within the structure of formal education, while the Zimbabwe experience relates more to the economic integration of young people. The Canadian study is also devoted to a response to those young people who are marginalised not by war, as in Vietnam and Zimbabwe, but in the sense that they are out of school, out of work and come from severely under-privileged and endangered family and social backgrounds. The United Kingdom study covers young people who also have considerable difficulty in finding a place in the labour market: like

the Canadian experiment it is concentrated on vocational training but with specific reference to new technology.

The relationship between the local initiatives described and the national educational programmes of each country is also very varied. The United Kingdom project started in one locality, but has subsequently been adopted as a national programme, and is being replicated and adapted to local conditions elsewhere. In the Mexican programme, while financial and technical assistance was provided on a national scale, it has relied on municipal and local initiative for its implementation and decentralised administration through the intermediate authorities at the level of the states. Yugoslavia, with its long-standing federal system shows how, within an overall national educational framework, an autonomous province is able to work out a special approach adapted to its local conditions and needs. In Zimbabwe the emphasis is on local self-help through productive cooperatives which are functioning within an overall government programme for rural development and rehabilitation. In Vietnam it is again the municipality which, as the responsible education authority, has taken the initiative to meet the special needs of its young citizens within the guidelines laid down by the national educational system.

The Centre for Employment Initiatives

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CANADA

Quebec: the Programme of Work Organisation Inc. (Programme d'organisation au travail Inc)

The Programme of Work Organisation in Quebec had its origins in St Edward Recycling Inc., a'social enterprise' (enterprise sociale)* for the recycling of manufactured products. This enterprise situated in the heart of an industrial park and with an operation which covers the whole of the territory of the Montreal region has links with municipalities and the government of Quebec as well as with other organisations across the whole of Canada.

The first application for funds for a new youth programme was made at a time when the relationship between the provincial government and the federal government was politically tense. However persistence on the part of two of the founding members, still working in the programme, eventually paid off and the proposal was accepted by the federal Commission for Employment and Immigration and given financial support.

The project focuses on young people between the ages of 18 and 25, who have certain characteristics:

- they have left school;
- they are without work;
- they have difficulty in adjusting to society;
- the majority of them did not complete secondary school;
- over 90% come from underprivileged backgrounds;
- over 90% come from broken families;
- some are delinquent and others belong to delinquent networks.

The programme lasts 15 weeks, during which the young people are paid. It is divided into seven stages.

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*Note: The term 'social enterprise' is used to describe an enterprise having social objectives (e.g those concerned with the enhancement of the quality of life) rather than economic (e.g wealth and profit creation) objectives.

Each of the seven stages is now described in summary.

Stage 1: Registration

To be accepted onto the programme an individual must make a request for registration. To do this he/she must complete a form (rather like a job application form). This approach is designed to measure the applicant's motivation, to see how necessary he/she feels a return to the labour market to be. In order to make the programme as accessible as possible, both for applicants and for the institutions which may refer them to the programme, there is a 'continuous entry' system: it is possible for anyone to make an application at any time.

Stage 2: Selection

Selection is made on the basis of the application form. The main factor involved in the selection of applicants is the extent to which there is the motivation and the will to get into the labour market. There is a selection interview, which lasts about half-an-hour. It is mainly devoted to this subject of motivation to return to work. Other topics discussed include values towards work as well as aspects of the candidate's personality. The will to tackle his/her social rehabilitation through work is a major determinan for selection. Applicants must also be able to demonstrate:

- an ability to read and write;
- an ability to express, in writing, a series of reasons for going back to work, which can serve as a basis for discussion at the selection interview;
- a minimum of financial organisation ability, to show that they can live without having recourse to illegal alternatives.

Stage 3: Growth and Orientation (1 week)

The objective of this stage is to make participants aware of what is involved in decision making, and of how to take action having made decisions. Programme staff work with the participants on the following tasks:

- making an inventory of all the decisions which await the participants;
- finding the means of resolving problems and choosing the appropriate actions to follow;

- offering support in the day-to-day management of participants' lives, and working with them to set out a training plan.

This stage takes place in a friendly atmosphere, creating a relaxed mood. The afternoons of this week are devoted to making a catalogue of the training needed in the light of the choices and decisions made in the orientation. This catalogue might include:

- a visit to a vocational training centre;
- correspondence courses;
- educational courses;
- specialised schools, etc.

Thus, together with the staff, participants assemble a plan for work and training.

Stage 4: Workshops to prepare for a job

For 8 weeks the participant has to attend for four mornings a week. This means a total of 32 workshop sessions suited to each individual's situation. Each workshop has been tested with 18-25 year olds during three years, their purpose is to 're-float' the participant in the labour market through a gradual and predetermined process.

These 32 workshops are of three hours duration each and are divided into 3 broad categories. Firstly, there are ones covering the basic themes, on seeking a job. These help to give a better understanding of the world of work. They are the essential framework of the rest. Secondly, there are the complementary themes. These provide sensitisation to the different realities and obligations of the worker and make known what services are available to him/her. Finally there are the motivation themes which are geared to the needs and requests of each participant. The content of each theme is shown in the diagram below.

THE THREE WORKSHOP THEMES

1. Basic themes

- Curriculum vitae (2 sessions)
- Ways of finding out about training (1 session)
- Ways of finding out about jobs (2 sessions)
- Job search (1 session)
- Interview simulation (3 sessions)
- Filling in application forms (1 session)
- The labour market (1 session)
- How a factory works (2 sessions)
- Health and safety at work (1 session)
- Making a plan for work (2 sessions)

2. Complementary themes

- Continuing education (1 session)
- Tax (1 session)
- Unemployment pay (1 session)
- Individual rights (1 session)
- Analysing a work problem (1 session)
- Introduction to computers (4 sessions)

3. Motivation themes

- Alcoholism
- Drug addiction
- Politics
- Budgeting
- Industrial visits

Cont/....

- Sexuality
- Consumer protection
- Ex-prisoners
- Environmental Observation
- Social welfare assistance
- Trade unions
- Recidivism versus social integration
- Information on local resources
- Work values (behaviour and attitudes)

During the afternoons of these same 8 weeks, participants use the time for up-grading or training courses. The choice is made according to the life and work plan they have developed.

Up-grading means catching up, to get to an accepted level through technical training in a skill of the participants' choice. For the more general training, there are courses in one or more of the five enterprises with which the programme is linked, which include recycling, carpentry, mechanics, computer work and dispatch/reception.

Stage 5: Finding out about on-the-job training (1 week)

This week involves the participants, in the course of the workshops, in making a list of places where they would like to work. This list is based on their inclinations and on the choices they made during the orientation period. Then, during this period they go to meet employers and offer their services for a period of four weeks with, in the majority of cases, the possibility of a job thereafter. In this way they make a gradual transition from the programme to the labour market.

Stage 6: Course in enterprise (4 weeks)

Here the 'weaning' (transition) process becomes still stronger. For these 4 weeks they are in employment and do not have to be supervised each morning as was the case in previous weeks. It becomes up to the participants, during their course

with the employer, to seek out their supervisor to inform him/her of how the course is going. In addition the supervisor also has a direct contact with the place where they are working. This is also a good moment to start a sandwich (alternance) process of training and work.

Stage 7: Intensive job search (2 weeks)

If needed, the particpants can avail themselves of these 2 additional weeks for job seach if the prévious course in Stage 6 has not gone well or if it has not led to employment. During these two weeks the participant goes to his/her supervisor with a list of possible employers. A number of visits are needed. Support is provided and more intensive counselling is available if there are more serious difficulties and there is little prospect of employment.

Individual follow-up

As soon as a participant is accepted into the programme one staff member is allocated to him/her, meeting him/her once a week and reviewing difficulties which arise in dealing with the labour market. In the course of these regular meetings four levels of topics are tackled:

Level 1: At this stage the satisfaction of primary needs is evaluated (lodging, food, human relationships etc).

Level 2: At this level the individual is helped to face his/her situation with regard to work, successes, failure etc.

Level 3: At this stage the individual has made his/her choices and has more self-confidence. Now a career plan can be discussed.

Level 4: This involves developing a work plan and exploring the 'how' and the 'why' of such a plan. During this, participants face, develop and put into practice work and training plans directly linked to the sectors in which they are seeking a job.

Teaching tools

A number of educational tools have been tried out on the programme over the years. These include:

- Vocational tests;
- Folders of presentations to employers;

- Leaflets and notes on job search;
- Training contracts with employers;
- Testimonial of passing the programme (references);
- Certificate of introductory course on computers;
- Contacts with staff in the Employment Centres.

Some results

By various means, both direct and indirect, it has been possible to assemble a picture of what happened to participants in the first two years of the programme (1982/83 and 1983/84). In some cases this involved contacting parents, friends, acquaintances, etc. Information was obtained on 84 of the 89 participants. Even after 2-3 years, 77% of them have been found to be in education or employment. The full results of the follow up are shown below.

FOLLOW UP SURVEY OF PROGRAMME PARTICIPANTS
(1982/83 and 1983/84 COURSES

	No.	%
IN EMPLOYMENT	54	61
IN EDUCATION	14	16
OUT OF WORK	15	17
NO CONTACT	5	6
DEAD	1	-
	89	100

MEXICO

The background

Of the total population of Mexico of 72 million, 30 million are in the 15 to 34 year-old age group. There are about 750,000 more women than men. There is a disproportionately large concentration of children and youth in the capital, Mexico City, where the number of those aged under 34 is 65% of the total population of the city and this proportion is increasing. Therefore, of all the young people economically active in the country as a whole, 20% are in the capital.

Between 15 and 20% of young people are unemployed. Those who work are in agriculture (35.4%), transportation (19.3%), services (18.7%), commerce (8.9%) and public services (3.1%).

The education system has 25 million children and young people registered in schools, but the drop-out rate is high : of every 100 starting primary school only 52 complete the sixth grade and only 44 go on to secondary school. Of those who take secondary education a comparatively high proportion (65.5%) go on to undergraduate studies, but in some cases this has led to graduates being unable to find jobs.

Started in 1977, CREA (Consejo Nacional de Recursos para la Atención de la Juventud) is dependent on the Secretariat of Public Education but seeks to involve other departments and local authorities. Following the change of government in 1982 CREA's economic programme, FOCREA, was established with a focus on creating employment for young people through unconventional means. From the start it sought to get the cooperation both of the industrial sector and of youth organisations, putting much emphasis on participation by young people themselves in determining their own social and economic future. Faced with a form of urban-industrial development which has led to a massive migration of young people from the countryside to the city, FOCREA has tried to provide better conditions of work for those engaged in the informal economy without any vocational training as well as to provide opportunities for young people to earn a decent living while remaining in the provinces and rural areas.

Started in July 1984 FOCREA had a budget of over 737 million pesos. In the fist six months 60 million pesos were allocated to the development of local youth enterprises.

Local youth enterprises

In the first part of this study three of the eight enterprises established in 1984 are described. Given that all three are still at an early stage, the accounts of them are therefore more descriptive and analytical than evaluative, although this case study does end with an attempt to assess the programme in at least preliminary terms.

FOCREA: policy and practice

"The programme for economic promotion is born from a concern to tackle the negative social effects which the present economic situation has on Mexican youth, especially upon that nucleus of people where the nature of this economy's repercussion is most felt. The structural failure of conventional productive methods has presented a serious obstacle to the employment of young workers, and if one adds to this their lack of work experience and the initial expense involved in incorporating them into the work process in a productive manner, the new schemes become essential prerequisites for the formal enterprises".*

In the framework of social economy, FOCREA seeks to investigate the feasibility of new occupational schemes, requiring lower investment, which are capable of becoming self-financed and which utilise simple technical procedures. Such schemes aim to create jobs at low cost, and have a high level of participation. The specific objectives of FOCREA are three-fold:

- to provide young people with alternatives for their integration into the productive process;
- to offer young people the necessary means for organisation, so that they can present and sell their services;
- to support actions which strengthen the standard of living of young people, providing them with training and specialised skills.

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*Note: extracted from reference (8) on page 59

The programme has been divided into a number of sub-programmes:

- youth enterprises;
- promotion of youth services;
- camping;
- streetcorner work;
- clothes distribution;
- record distribution;
- community development;
- support for town councils.

Finance for the sub-programmes comes partly from the normal budget of FOCREA (which is currently 5,000 million pesos per annum) but also from local state funds, from other Ministries involved in job creation, and from loans obtained from government financial organisations.

One significant feature is that schemes have been developed from initiatives which youth organisations themselves have put forward. To encourage such initiatives intensive field work was carried out in the preliminary period in order to keep in touch with those interested in developing productive activities.

The youth enterprises

In order to obtain a basic thrust for this part of the programme, the first move has been to help create 'model businesses' which will help expand the experience of other groups. Such businesses must possess the following characteristics:

- they must involve a low level of investment;
- technically and economically, the businesses must be viable enterprises in market economy terms;
- they must be capable of becoming self-financing;
- they must operate with simple technological and administrative procedures;
- they must directly involve youth groups and organisations;
- they must create employment at a low cost;
- they must offer work to young people from marginalised urban and rural areas;

- they must operate with a management system which is either participatory, or self-managing, co-partnership or co-operative;

- they must have both economic and social ends;

- they must entail educational work in the productive process - 'learn while you work';

- they must aim at increasing employment rather than increasing the return on the capital invested.

Eight youth businesses, following these criteria, were assisted in 1984. Details of them are shown at Table 1.

In order to promote the 'model businesses', as well as to enable profiles of their features to be drawn up, a methodology has been developed. The methodology begins with a first stage of diagnosis, which aims to discover the conditions of the various groups wishing to form a business together and the characteristics of the activity which is to be developed. In this way the economic and social potential which can be reached in the community by the proposed productive unit is explored. The second stage is preparation, during which studies of the economic feasbility are carried out.

Following this stage, authorisation is given to the members, by way of grants given by FOCREA. Then comes the planning and organising of the business, including an assessment of existing resources and of those which will be needed. The third stage is that of setting-up, during which the necessary steps are taken to obtain credit from financial institutions.

During the setting-up stage, three steps can be identified:

- Installation. This involves the acquisition of land and buildings, the purchase of machines, tools and materials.

- Initiative. Here the production process is started, the first sales are made and accountancy and financial procedures begin. In this stage the business 'takes on a rhythm': it achieves a certain point of stability in relation to sales and productivity.

- Consolidation. Everyone in the organisation becomes involved, regulating and controlling internally all the areas of production, marketing and finance.

Table 1: Draft proposal for Youth Enterprise Sub-Programme

	Number	Monthly Amount	Six-Monthly Amount	Materials	Equipment	Operations	Total per Project
Granja Hortícola (D.F.) Horticulture	84	856,800.00	6'140,800.00	433,454.00	570,400.00	484,000.00	6'628,654.00
Fábrica de Tabicon y Block de Concreto (D.F.) Concrete Blocks	12	122,400.00	734,400.00	-	-	-	734,400.00
Fábrica de Puertas Ventanas Cortinas Metálicas (D.F.) Metalwork	10	102,000.00	612,000.00	-	-	-	612,000.00
Taller de Procesamiento y Reutilización de Deshechos Orgánicos e innorganicos (SIRDO) (D.F.) Waste Recycling	14	142,800.00	856,800.00	-	-	-	856,800.00
Granja Cunícola Juvenil (D.F.) Rabbits	16	163,200.00	979,200.00	285,000.00	802,146.00	-	2'066,346.00
Productora de Alimentos (Sinaloa) Food Processing	-	-	-	1'226,800.00	-	-	1'226,800.00
Beneficio de Café (Guerrero) Coffee	-	-	-	-	2'600.000.00	-	2'600,000.00
Producción Apicola (Morelos) Honey	-	-	-	275,000.00	-	-	275,000.00

Three of the eight enterprises are now described in more detail.

Mexico City: the collective rabbit farm

This business has been set up at the request of the (local) People's Youth Council (Consejo Popular Juvenil), an organisation which works with marginal youth groups - such as gangs, clans - which are to be found on the outskirts of the capital, in the Santa-Fe district to the east of the city. This experiment has provoked great interest, as it involves turning young people from a group known to be very tough, often referred to as "los panchitos", towards productive activities.

The feasibility study for this enterprise outlined its objectives as "to create employment which will guarantee them a secure and permanent income, and for this purpose to set up a rabbit farm which will enable them on the one hand, to strengthen their buying power through meat sales and, on the other hand, to raise the level of consumption within the area".

The investment required for the enterprise is shown in Table 2

Table 2: Investment for the collective rabbit farm

	Pesos
Set investment sum	2,387,020
Deferred investment	124,840
Working capital	1,854,861
Total invested	4,366,721

The scheme has directly created 14 related jobs and during the first year of operation 4,200 rabbits have been produced and sold, both as meat and fur. The business is situated in a workers' area, of 650,000 low-income inhabitants, and the project also helps to stimulate the purchase of a high quality meat rich in protein.

The breeding ground is in an area of 119m^2 (7 x 17) in which there are 96 battery cages. The land was obtained by the People's Youth Council and the building was erected as part of an agreement with CREA. According to the feasibility study, 57% of a sample questioned approved of rabbit meat. While the profit margin was high (17.6%) the social impact of the scheme will grow continually.

A report in the journal Encuentro de la Juvenud on youth self-management, describes how the business and the cultural centre were built by the panchitos. "We walked through the steep streets in Santa Fe until we arrived at a clearing. There, shirtless youngsters, between fifteen and twenty years old are clearing away stones and gathering earth; they share the work spontaneously. They work like this every day. In the (cultural) centre they already produce a small newspaper of their own, perform plays - one of which received a prize - and show films for the whole community".

Evodio, one of the leaders of the Council, says of the collective forum: "Those of us taking part from the Youth Council, resent the managers who are always imposing work restrictions. The tenant farmers from the Alvaro Obregon Delegation trust us and have lent us land: they give us the means to come out on top. Just now with the blokes from the suburbs of Santa Fe, Corpus Christi, El Cuerneieto and others, the creation of a collective rabbit farm is brewing. We are in favour of this work, given that any business to do with rabbits is a profitable one. The work is shared and every week we hold meetings - to see how things are going. We lack financial backing, but anyway we carry on working on our own initiative".

The young people enjoy independent work which is not in factories but in a co-operative forum. As Evodio says: "We know full-well what it is to be a worker locked away in a factory working your guts out without getting any benefits, and with the possibility that they can tell you to go to hell at anytime. We believe that amongst ourselves we can come out on top".

Guerrero state: coffee roasting and grinding

This project seeks to strengthen, by financial means, the economic activity of young coffee producers in seven communities situated in the mountains of Guerrero state, to the west of Mexico. These are the communities of Malinaltepec, Colombia, Tierra Colorada, Arroyo San Pedro, Iliatenco, San Jose and Pueblo Hidalgo.

The preliminary study noted that coffee is the primary agricultural export which brings in the most foreign currency to the country. After the 1982/83 national harvest 32,000 million pesos were made, and in 1983/84, 49,000 million, an increase of 53%. However, there are serious structural problems in the production of coffee and in the commercial returns it brings, in particular to small producers, for whom the revenue returns fall short of economic and social needs. The Mexican Coffee Institute has been unable to solve this problem and has itself been hindered by considerable administrative problems.

The project under way seeks to strengthen the earning power of young people who make up 70% of the population in the seven local communities, through the installation of coffee roasters and grinders. From the social point of view its objectives are to create alternative job opportunities for the young, to reduce the migration to the cities, and to improve the level of living of the producers and their families.

The aim is to establish a self-managing business for the youth. As more young people from the various communities become involved with the business, a project management group will be set up comprising 50 young people, responsible for the running of the business. In Table 3, the potential social impact is shown, in terms of how many producers' families will benefit, their level of education and the buildings which the local schemes are using.

Table 3: Communities Benefiting from the Project

Community	Producers	Total Population	Health Centre	Education
Manilaltepec	987	6,000	IMSS	Primary & Secondary
Colombia	281	1,685	IMSS	Primary
Tierra Colorada	264	1,580	Health Centre INI	Primary
Arroyo San Pedro	125	750	Health Centre INI	Primary
Hiatenco	1,463	8,800	IMSS	Primary & Secondary
San Jose V.	90	540	Health Centre	Primary
Pueblo Hidalgo	404	2,240	IMSS	Primary

*Notes:

IMSS: Mexican Institute of Social Security (Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social)

INI : National Institute for Native Affairs (Instituto Nacional Indigenista)

To complement the investment, in terms of work and other resources in kind provided by the community, FOCREA has provided 2,600 000 pesos. The ground and the building which serves to store the coffee, and in which the oven has been installed, is the result of community effort through voluntary work.

The experiment shows that despite the low level of education, the business works, a fact which goes to show that this kind of enterprise can work without any great difficulties even when young people who have dropped out from school are involved.

During 1985, the business plans to export 700 tons of coffee.

The establishment of roasters and grinders will doubtless mean that young coffee cultivators will see their products gain in value. The processed coffee will be sold at a price of 350 or 400 pesos per kilo.

To roast the coffee the young people have called on their own creativity and have invented a machine. Alexander, one of the leaders of the enterprise says: "Here in the mountains, we've managed to invent a coffee roaster. If we had got it in Acapulco, it would have cost 680,000 pesos. We went and looked at the apparatus. Here we produce the best flavoured coffee in the country, thousands of quintals, which before our invention was sold unroasted, and so we discovered that with a bit of effort and this machine we can roast 70 kilos, and our roaster has cost the village of Iliatenco 30,000 pesos".

The invention, handled manually by the youngsters and the adults within the community, has in fact a greater efficacy than commercially patented machines; and as it is a collective workshop the enterprise has become the focus of attention in the Manilaltepec municipality.

Suruato: peach canning

In 1978 the school production cooperative of the Justo Sierra Centre for Studies (Centro de Estudios Justo Sierra de Suruato) was set up, in Suruato, in the municipality of Bediroquato (Sinaloa) in north west Mexico. The Centre for Studies had been built in 1980 by collective work at a cost of over 1.5 million pesos: it contains classrooms and workshops (stable, woodwork, and cattle unit). In the same year the cultural centre was also finished, which serves as a library and a centre for youth. 54 secondary school pupils and 35 undergraduate students attend the Centre for Studies.

At present other studies are being set-up for graduates, concerned with the creation of production co-operatives (pig farming, poultry farming and fruit farming) and the training of engineers fitted to the specific needs of the region. The centre has thus become the driving nucleus behind the activities of the community, on all matters, whether political, social or educational.

The communities in this region have acquired a reputation for the cultivation of fruit - and especially peaches - by young people, but as the fruit cannot all be consumed before it perishes, it is often wasted.

This problem has attracted the concern of the members of the Centre for Studies, given that they have been able to exploit other kinds of farm products successfully. In order to get the best out of the peaches, they started to can them in syrup, and this is when they turned to FOCREA for support.

The peach canning business will process 8,000 kilos of fruit in 1985, and FOCREA is investing 3,254,344 pesos. The school cooperative itself is dealing with the investment of the physical labour, raw materials and legal costs.

The peach is a fruit rich in phosphorous, potassium and in the vitamins A and C. Easily obtainable by-products, such as jelly, jam and pulp, increase profitability. In addition, the machines needed for the canning process can also be used for meat, vegetable crops and other such products.

The actual processes are manual ones and the members of the cooperative have already begun training for the most profitable way of handling the product. However, a technical survey suggests that in order to consolidate the considerable ground already achieved, there should be a diversification and broadening of the productive capacity. It recommends looking for new channels of commercialisation and proposes an attractive and intensive publicity campaign to promote the products.

From an economic and educational point of view, the enterprise has the following aims :

- to teach people how to work together ;
- to create and support responsibility and solidarity;
- to teach participants how to manage a production company ;
- to teach how to produce for company needs.

This enterprise has shown a great capacity for initiative and organisation ; the plant has been used to 60% of its capacity and is likely to be fully used in its second year. The cans, each weighing 860 grammes sell at 143 pesos each.

The scheme is best summed up by Ophelia,one of the members of the cooperative: "For me the most important thing we young people of Suruato are experiencing is that we have learned to make things for ourselves. Our fathers agreed to put up the centre if we stopped leaving here. So we join with them, we make suggestions, and we take part in the meetings. In this way we, with them, have improved community life through concrete programmes". Sophia, another member, adds: "Here in the centre we don't have teachers. That is the difference from the traditional system of education: here it is self-study and collective work. The truth is that descriptions like 'secondary' or 'preparatory' aren't important to us. The main purpose is not the economic one but learning to join in collective work. For us the values which guide us ar solidarity with the community and respect for the majority. We are equipping ourselves to preserve the independence of our community ....."

Youth enterprises in perspective : other programmes of FOCREA

The youth enterprises are the largest element of FOCREA in support of initiative by local groups at the municipal and commune levels. But other aspects of FOCREA are also administered locally. There is a programme of youth training grants. Over a thousand of these grants (each of which is 10,200 pesos) have been made,mostly in the provinces. A network of 36 offices - one in each State and 5 in the capital city - has been established for the administration of this programme, which uses both public and private training institutions. The occupations in which courses have been made available correspond to local demand and have included: carpentry; plastering; plumbing; electrical repair and maintenance; painting;and domestic service. Not all the opportunities have been taken up, partly because young people are not confident that training will lead to a job, and a major campaign is required to establish the fact that the services for which

training is provided are in demand in the labour market.

Another programme is aimed at young artists and performers. Known as 'Streetcorner Work' (Operación Callejera) it started with a pilot project in 1983 in which over 100 performances of different types were presented as part of the first National Youth Assembly held in the capital. This led, in 1984 to a permanent programme being set up to provide opportunities for young performers. Those in receipt of grants through the programme are expected to give 2 performances a week of at least one hour's duration in streets and public places where there are large numbers of people. Musicians are expected to perform in the evenings and at weekend public fiestas, twice a week for two hours each time. Every performance should be preceded by at least 4 hours of rehearsal. Over 2,500 grants have been made with 90% allocated to the provinces. Each grant is for 10,200 pesos and covers a period of six months. The total budget for the programme is 160,639,000 pesos. Special measures have been taken to encourage travelling shows to tour rural areas. Statistics show that in the programme as a whole 785 groups have given 41,230 performances of different kinds. Many of the performances (music, acting, mime, chorus and drama of all kinds) have been given in youth centres opened by municipalities and the performances have been linked to the sale of records, books and clothing.

Clothing, books and records have been identified as being major items in the consumption patterns of young people. Clothing, as one study shows, becomes an important part of a young people's behaviour patterns, enables them to develop with the times and to strengthen their feeling of participating in society. To meet youth needs, an enterprise for the sale of clothing has been set up by a partnership between CREA and MARSA, a private clothing firm. MARSA is responsible for the production of suitable quantities of clothing of good and attractive quality and making them available at cost price. FOCREA is responsible for sales adding only the actual cost of the selling operation to the basic price. Thus 'middlemen' are avoided and prices are sometimes as low as 60% of the open market price. Similar sales and distribution systems are being developed for books and records. Three records have been made and another 10 are planned for 1985.

Two other FOCREA programmes - of community development and of aid to municipalities-are not directly linked to the creation of jobs but consist of adding to young people's income. The community development programme provides grants to members of youth organisations who take part in local community development projects. In the first period of operation some 2,600 grants were made for projects which involve young people in manual labour on projects of community benefit.

The programme of aid to municipalities gives grants, on a matching basis, to encourage municipalities to take onto their payroll young people in a wide range of occupations in the administrative, political, economic and sports sections. 627 grants have been made under this heading.

A preliminary assessment

The setting up of the youth enterprises has brought both success and problems. The aim is not to treat the enterprises as isolated examples of self-managed and self-contained group economies, but to ensure that they function as viable entities within the general market economy of the country. There have been the administrative 'growing pains' which are alomost inevitable in setting up programmes on this scale across a whole country. Combining the provision of services for youth with the formation and management of economic ventures is a complex process. There has been the occasional administrative failure, and obtaining credits for youth enterprises, which are not viewed with confidence by traditional financial institutions,has not been easy. Young people vote at 18 but are not considered to be credit-worthy. CREA itself is seeking to guarantee funds and to link up with other possible sources of financing through other sectors such as agriculture, fisheries, planning and so on. It is also investigating the possibilities of obtaining assistance from abroad.

The training of staff at all levels constitutes an important issue especially at the level of local management and administration of enterprises. For the future there are problems of evaluation and follow-up to be faced. Ever greater and more difficult demands will be made on those in the Mexican public administration so that they can understand and adapt their procedures to the needs of the youth programmes. FOCREA is now on a solid base and is responding to a felt need of the youth population. The next stage is an expansion and a further decentralisation, which in turn will necessitate a greater contribution by local authorities.

UNITED KINGDOM

Notting Dale: New Technology and the young unemployed

The area of Notting Dale, in the London borough of Hammersmith and Fulham, to the West of the central core of the city, has, like much of the inner urban city area, experienced economic decline for many years. This decline has not passed unremarked, and the borough's municipal (local) government has established vigorous and wide-ranging programmes and policies to promote economic development, to create jobs, and to assist particularly disadvantaged groups. These actions make use of and/or complement the actions of central government. One project developed in the borough has been innovative and successful enough to act as a stimulus to, and model for, what is now a large scale central government funded programme for young unemployed school leavers. But this is more than a story of how municipal action has led to national action. It begins with the actions of young people themselves, which were taken up and taken further by educationalists, which drew in academics and businesses as well as municipal officials, and attracted the interest and involvement of a government minister. The result has also been more than to inspire a national programme: the local scheme has evolved and developed into a diverse and wide-ranging set of initiatives providing training, educational resources and jobs for the area.

Urban studies

The story begins at the Notting Dale Urban Studies Centre, an 'educational resource centre' established to help the local population, and especially young people, to develop an understanding of the local urban environment and to develop responses to its needs and changing circumstances. The centre is used both by groups from local schools, by local voluntary and community groups and associations (such as tenants associations, and campaigning groups), and by individuals. As might be expected, the centre and those using it gathered information about and took action on issues such as housing, noise, pollution, local services, health etc, but from 1977 onwards, concerns developed about what was happening to the local economy and the centre started to look at it in detail. A group of young people carried out an investigation and presented the centre's director (Christopher Webb) with their findings. He summarises what emerged as follows:

"Looking at what was happening to our local economy.... it was quite obvious that it was shrinking and transforming under our very feet. There was a great loss of apprenticeships in engineering. The office sector was beginning to contract. This wasn't just due to the recession: it was due to the introduction of technology across sectors of employment, and I think we began to see that technology was a job killer. So there was a concern about the mismatch between jobs and skills. Yet there were jobs in the one growth sector - micro computers - and there was also a massive net overall decline in job opportunities. So could one actually construct a local strategy which attempted to do something about those two things? We decided to dance with the 'silicon devil'. Rather than be trampled under foot we set up an information technology centre which attempts to do two things: training people to be able to get the jobs which exist and also developing new jobs out of the new technology".

Setting up this information technology centre (ITEC) was not easy, however, as Chris Webb explains:

"When it came to implementing what we wanted to do, we received a very negative and sceptical response both from major private and public institutions. It took a very long time to get our ideas through. The scepticism was based, I think, first on the simple disbelief that young people without the formal academic qualifications that were normally seen as being required could have access to and make use of this kind of technology creatively and vocationally. But we weren't guessing. Our belief was based on many years of experience in inner city teaching. We know that there are many adults and young people who are 'under-achievers' in school. It is exactly those kinds of youngsters who have come to the front door of this centre and who have been trained in information technology. More to the point, one of the characteristics of this technology is that it is kind of 'closet' technology: you don't need massive capital investment or complex equipment. People who have come from educational backgrounds which are almost blank have bought themselves a home computer and taught themselves..... Extraordinary inventiveness seems to be one of the characteristics of this technology because it is small scale and accessible; (secondly,) the public institutions from whom we sought funds were concerned that our ideas broke many of the demarcation rules implicit in provision for young people. For example, in the simple business of sharing facilities - a notion which is central to all thinking behind community education. We always wanted the Notting Dale Information Technology Centre to be an open access place, so that young or young unemployed people

weren't the only user groups. We wanted to have adults coming in on computer literacy courses, senior engineers coming in to train, enthusiasts coming in to use the facilities in their spare time. All of that is a formidable challenge to normal government rulings, which specify that money should be spent on the target groups for which it had been allocated. But, I argued- and still argue - that our approach was a massively cost-effective exercise! So that was one of the reasons why there was a fairly obdurate opposition from public funding institutions".

The actual development of the concept of the ITEC took a considerable period. The Urban Studies Centre had always both attracted and sought to involve, professionals, academics, and others whose knowledge and expertise could assist local people in their studies and projects. Thus, the concept of the ITEC was developed by a network of people, from the Institute of Education at the Imperial College of Science and Technology, trade unions, teachers and staff of the centre. They met regularly, talked about ideas and issues, wrote papers, lobbyied for support, and brought the concept forward into an operational plan.

At the same time a second, closely related, idea was being brought forward, to have, alongside the ITEC, a centre to provide technology training to engineers in industry. Such centres were being established elsewhere with funds from the government industry ministry (Department of Trade and Industry) but none were at such a 'community' level.

It was hoped that an old bakery, adjacent to the Urban Studies Centre, would be the base for the ITEC. Refurbishment costs were met through finance provided by the economic and planning unit of the local government authority, officials of which were also actively involved in the development of the concept.

By early 1980, the information technology centre was ready to start operations. The key, in the end, to moving from concept to practical reality was persuading the Manpower Services Commission - a government agency responsible for programmes for young unemployed school-leavers, among other things - to make finance for the ITEC available through the Youth Opportunities Programme (which was subsequently to be replaced by a similar programme known as the Youth Training Scheme). Through the programme, funds were made available to:

- pay training allowances to young unemployed people attending the ITEC, full-time, for training in new technology rules and applications;

- pay the salaries of seven administrative and training/supervisory staff recruited;

- pay overhead costs and to help meet the costs of equipping the centre with micro-computers, etc. (the borough also provided additional finance).

At the same time the centre to provide technology training for adult engineers was also financed by the industry ministry. This finance provided for 3 more staff and additional computer equipment.

Both it and the ITEC were established under the legal format of a not-for-profit company, known as the Notting Dale Technology Centre Ltd, with its board of directors drawn from among the individuals who had been involved in developing the concept.

But it should be stressed that the ITEC had, from the very outset, wider objectives than the training of young unemployed people. Its 'parent' - the Urban Studies Centre - was, as noted earlier, an educational resource centre. No less was to be the case for the ITEC, which had the following objectives:

- to provide training to young unemployed people in information technology and related skills;

- to provide training for other groups and individuals in the community - that is to act as a freely accessible local resource for adult and continuing education;

- to provide training for companies wishing to train their staff in the use of new technology - and to make charges for such services, so as to generate income for the centre;

- to create jobs through developing new cooperatives and small businesses from projects and services based on new technology.

Staff recruitment policy, from the outset, reflected this 'multiple use/resource centre' approach. First and foremost those involved looked for what were termed 'enablers', people who were technically and technologically

able and qualified but who would be able to be more than teacher/trainers. Other qualities were required - they would need to be 'enthusiasts' and they would need to be committed to the centre's philosophy of resource/open access. In practical terms this latter meant that staff recruited would need to be comfortable with what would be more than a '9 to 5' job.

The area in which the Urban Studies Centre and the ITEC are located is not prepossessing. They are at the end of a cul-de-sac with high rise flats opposite; an urban motorway and a railway further serving to isolate them from the surroundings. The location is, theoretically, far from ideal, as are the premises. These are best described as a sprawling 'rabbit warren' of rooms, stairs and corridors, for the most part cramped, with every square foot of space used to the full, but creating a distinctive atmosphere which is both unintimidating and yet purposeful.

The training provided

The training offered to the young people by the ITEC embraces four main areas:

- electronics and micro electronics
- computing
- the electronic office
- a production unit

Each is now briefly described.

Electronics and micro electronics

Trainees each have a work station which enables them to learn the construction of basic circuits. There is an introduction to the use of integrated circuits, and all trainees construct their own power supply.

Students are introduced to Central Processing Units and build or use a series of external circuit boards which require a (machine code) programme to make them work. During this work, trainees

will be studying digital electronics using the text books recommended.

Computing

Trainees learn with and about computers and become proficient in:

- keyboard skills
- computer operations
- package (software) usage, including games, computer assisted learning, and elementary programmes
- programming including programme reading and text editing, programme writing in a variety of computer languages
- data input, preparation, control and output, including keyboard input, graphics tablet, voice input and control inputs and outputs
- information storage and retrieval
- networking (local and remote)
- maintenance and training for microcomputers
- hardware comparisons.

The electronic office

This includes:

- keyboard skills
- document design and preparation
- word processing (text creation, editing and filing)
- information storage and retrieval
- switchboards
- electronic mail
- networking, including teletext usage (both to receive and provide information) and page editing skills

- business software (including payroll, accounts, and mailing list).

Production units

Activities related to the training of young unemployed people are at the heart of the ITEC. Indeed it is this purpose which enabled it to secure finance from government programmes. But from the very outset the ITEC has confronted a vital question: "training for what?" In the United Kingdom, as elsewhere, investment in the training of the young (or indeed people of any age) always stands in danger of being, at best, less than efficient, or at worst, wasted, if the newly trained and skilled workforce cannot find places in the labour market. Even in an area such as west London, where economic decline has not been as marked as in other parts of the United Kingdom, and in an industrial sector such as modern technology, in which job opportunities do exist for the suitably trained, some young people leaving the ITEC may not find jobs. It is to these young people that the question 'training for what?' is most starkly posed. The ITEC has confronted it, albeit in necessarily a small way, through seeking to give practical reality to one of the objectives noted earlier: creating jobs. Six small enterprises have been created by the ITEC, since 1980. These are now briefly described.

Tools for Living (1980-83) ITEC staff and expert outsiders created this, as a separate cooperative, to produce 'customised' technology-based aids for disabled people. It took 18 months of planning (during which the ITEC invested considerable resources of time, and some cash) before formally establishing the cooperative which, at its height, took on 6 young trainees from the ITEC, and attracted in £61,000 of capital from trusts, banks and the municpal authority. It was, according to Chris Webb a "deliberate experiment" in producing socially useful products. Ultimately cash flow difficulties, brought about by missing a vital sales period, brought about its end, but new ideas recently developed could bring about its re-birth.

Microfix (1983 onwards). This came about in an entirely different way. It commercialised, into a separate company, the need of the ITEC for a repair and maintenance service for its own computers, and became a designated computer service centre for one manufacturer. Thus came Microfix (staffed by an ex-ITEC staff member and an ex-trainee) and the ITEC 'intertrade'. A £20,000 grant from the Greater London Training Board (part of the

municipal authority for the whole of London) was used to purchase equipment for Microfix, which in barter/exchange, provides training for the ITEC trainees in repair/ maintenance.

Communitel. The development of this dates from 1981. An ITEC staff member had an idea for a piece of software. He was given the time, space and facilities to develop the idea, which was eventually prototype-tested. It enables a microcomputer to act as an 'intelligent' video-text terminal - both to publish new frames of text and graphics and receive those produced by others. Technically it is highly innovative, with considerable commercial potential. By late 1983 Communitel had been established as a cooperative and trades satisfactorily. It requires, however, considerable capital investment (which has not yet been found, despite much effort) to maximise the commercial potential.

Digitalent Ltd This is a joint venture between the ITEC and another individual (an engineer) given space and facilities to develop a product (hardware) idea. It required 3½ years of development time. The ITEC was able to obtain municipal authority funding for prototype development and wages and it now owns 40% of the shares in the company, the other 60% being held by the individual.

Women/New Technology Cooperative This has been established, as a cooperative of female trainees from the ITEC, to produce high quality prototype boards for manufacturers. It has attracted 'innovation finance' from the Social Fund of the European Communities.

Spectre Graphics Ltd This is a company, limited by guarantee, which offers typesetting, printing and computer graphics services to businesses. One of its directors is its only full-time employee. He was a worker in a local youth club and one of the local people involved in developing ITEC concept. Again, a long 'lead' development time was involved (18 months) and the ITEC is seeking government finance for the venture.

National recognition

Bearing in mind the fact that three years elapsed between the point at which the idea of and need for the ITEC became apparent and its actual establishment, the events which followed its opening, and which led to what is now a network of 175 ITECs nationally, are quite remarkable. Christopher Webb explains what happened:

"The Notting Dale Information Technology Centre opened early in 1980. Lots of people, hundreds, came to see us when we got going. They knew about us because we had quite a lot of press coverage. One piece was in The Observer (a national Sunday newspaper). It included a rather poignant photo of a young black trainee playing quite skilfully with one of the micro computers. The office of the Minister of State (junior minister) at the Department of Industry picked this up. The minister got in touch to arrange a visit. He came down, liked what he saw and was very enthusiastic. Quite literally, a few days later he asked me to go to the Department and asked me if I would be prepared to direct a national programme! This was in early July 1981. In response, I put forward proposals which were quite unusual - that a group of people would be established here as a national Consultancy Unit. They would develop programmes on behalf of the Department, with a target to set up 30 centres. Since then the plans have been expanded".

Thus a small experiment in catering for the needs of young, (many of them from ethnic minorities) unemployed, disadvantaged school-leavers in west London, has, thanks to the perseverance and vision of its founders and supporters, now produced a significant national programme.

THE SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIET NAM

Ho Chi Minh-Ville: Supplementary Schooling

After the liberation of Saigon in 1975, major problems remained, relating to children staying outside the school system, and/or dropping out of it. At the end of 1975, the city could count 64,192 such children outside the education system, and the authorities have had to face this problem ever since.

An analysis of it reveals a number of causes. Persistent truancy among secondary school-age children accounts for the highest numbers: among those aged 11-15 years, 13% of the total population do not attend school; the figure for those aged 16-18 years is 14%. Even in the 6-10 year old age group, 6% of the total are absent from school. They require particular attention, as they are at the beginning of their schooling.

Most of the children affected belong to poor families, with unstable incomes. Before liberation, their livelihood depended on casual 'third sector' services. On the whole children had to work alongside their parents, as employees in small shops or street stalls. The analysis showed that:

- 38% of the children outside the school system found themsleves in this position through family poverty, because they were needed at home or put to work;
- 30% had parents who showed no interest in their studies and had to devote all their attention to business;
- 15% had families who had immigrated illegally into the city and could not send their children to school;
- 9% were ill. Sick children are not allowed to go to school, and because of time lost, children sometimes do not return once they recover their health;
- 5% came from reasonably well-off families where the parents were not interested in the education of their children;

- 3% were children drawn to street activity, outside the control of adults, and not interested in education.

Solving the problem

The authorities and community organisations outlined the task of responding to this problem as follows. They needed:

- to take a careful look at children's education;
- to organise physical and intellectual activity for young people in the city;
- to enable children who have dropped out of the school system, or who have never been part of it, to participate in social and recreational activities;
- to secure the right to learn for these children and, occasionally, to organise productive work projects for them.

In this way, it was hoped to allow these children to become useful citizens. The city's education authority aims to eliminate illiteracy, to generalise schooling for school-age children and to improve the quality of existing education. This work is linked to the development of political, cultural and social activity in the city.

Schooling for children outside the education system is provided by making use of the elementary schools. Evening classes constitute an effective way of teaching this group. The system was built up over two years (1976-78) by both the city's education authority and concerned community groups. At the same time, the content and curriculum were developed with the aim of bringing these children back into the school system as early as possible. The task necessitated major financial investment, material facilities and pedagogic research. It required the involvement of social and cultural groups, with each neighbourhood and each borough setting up its own administration. The elementary schools are responsible for the teaching, as the central body from which any such schemes originate, while the city youth organisation is in charge of organising extra-curricular activities aimed at socialising the target group.

The scheme is financed partly from the national budget, partly from the overall city budget (including the committee for the protection of children) and partly with finance from industry.

Each child receives 10 dong per year for school materials and another 20 dong per month is spent on each child for teaching and activities. In total this amounts to a sum of 270 dong per child per annum.

The organisation of the scheme

The city's educational authority has the task of formulating the teaching programme: a people's committee participates and helps to mobilise other groups to create projects. The committee consists of a member of the Education and Science Committee, a staff member in charge of cultural and educational activities, an associate director from the city education service, a staff member from the basic education service attached to the city education office, and two members of the city youth organisation's executive committee.

Within each borough there is another section comprising:

- an associate director of the borough (district) education committee;
- a team-leader in charge of adult education;
- a representative of the borough (district) police department;
- two members of the district youth organisation executive committee;
- a professional from the education union (district or borough);
- a few members of the local committee for the protection of children. This group is responsible for setting up projects for children outside the school system.

There is a further neighbourhood (commune) group, which includes:

- the person in charge of local cultural activity;
- a member of the local youth organisation;
- a local police officer;
- members of the executive committee of the local women's association;
- members of the parent teachers' association.

This group is in charge of school activities, stimulating and protecting extra-curricular activites, and assessing the results obtained by the children in school. The group liaises closely with the education council, which in turn is responsible for basic teaching for the truants.

Alongside this committee, the local education council contains two separate working groups. The first group oversees extra-curricular activity. It organises social and cultural activities in a yearly programme. The aim is to socialise the group of children who have been brought into the evening classes, to set up the foundations for disciplined work and good habits in accordance with the internal regulations of the school. The group is made up of:

- cadres in charge of pioneer education;
- cadres from the youth organisation executive committee;
- members of the committee for the protection of children (district or neighbourhood).

The second group is concerned with school administration, with formulating a syllabus, teaching methods and a timetable. It is responsible for any teaching problems and organises the body of teaching staff involved in evening classes.

The teachers who work in the evening classes are organised into a council of teachers. The school administration and this council are headed by a director and two associate directors. The director is an ex-head or deputy-head of a school and is responsible for organising teaching, the work of the teachers and extra-curricular activity set up by the youth organisation cadres. One associate director is solely in charge of youth organisation activities and evening classes. The other associate director comes from the adult education centre in the district and is responsible for overseeing the teaching in the school and assessing the results of the evening classes. There is also a secretary/accountant in charge of the school office and expenditure and two employees: one maintenance person and a school-keeper.

The council of teachers includes experienced young teachers with specialised skills who can draw in children from outside the school system. For this, they need to possess specific educational and psychological skills and the ability to apply teaching principles in a creative and appropriate way. These teachers also teach in day school and therefore need enthusiasm and affection for the pupils, in order to be able to work on in the evening classes. They also require a scientific and practical workplan and good health.

Classes generally number 15 to 30 pupils, although some are much smaller. Pupils are divided into groups. This format allows for shared study and group work. The pupils who live in the same street, or come from the same village, work in a collective group. Alternatively those with common interests gather in a group or in an evening class. This type of organisation links children to the community. Each class is based on self-management principles, with the more able children leading the class. There is a class leader, two assistant leaders, and pupils in charge of specific activities. Each class has a teacher who helps the class 'cadres' in their work and directs class activity according to stated educational aims.

One of the most effective approaches lies in the building up of interest. The basis of the teachers' work lies in affection and reason, where counselling and criticism of the children is concerned, with underlying affection and love being the means through which to educate the children. These teaching methods create a psychological environment attracting children into the life of the community. The application of such methods has succeeded in giving a number of pupils a basic education and a more healthy integration into the community and school.

The syllabus

The syllabus is carefully chosen and flexible, aimed at giving broad general knowledge rapidly. It allows pupils to catch up with day school pupils within three years, through a condensed version of the day-time syllabus. The syllabus takes into account the characteristics of the pupils and the conditions under which they operate. Many of them are engaged in productive work at home at the same time. Each evening class year-plan condenses some two years of day-school syllabuses, and 5 years of elementary school are reduced to 3 years of evening classes. Teaching methods need to be creative and differ slightly from day school teaching. Extra-curricular evening activity aims at educating the young people into young workers and fulfilling the children's need for communication through community activity. Cultural events, sport and leisure are organised on a separate basis. Meetings are organised at which social, historical and general concepts are discussed, focusing on ways of acquiring skills and abilities. Recreation includes music, theatre and art appreciation, with participation in cultural pursuits.

Regular yearly events on specific themes are included in evening activity in local community centres, led by the youth organisation or other groups. This has helped to socialise children and give them a healthy, disciplined life. They become more responsible and happier, both personally and in

groups. The number of children who do not take part in community activity and engage in gang activity has reduced considerably.

Currently there are no special teaching materials for evening classes: they use simplified day school material. Special materials imply investment, which in turn requires capital and exports. Evening class teachers have only a teachers' book for each class, with each chapter and each subject based on day-school textbooks.

The selection of teachers for the classes is based on two criteria: teaching skill and personal qualities. Firstly, the teacher must be a competent manager to deal with these pupils. Each teacher is assigned 3 sessions of three hours per week. The teachers need to be young, well-trained, enthusiastic, responsible, with a great love of their work, able to win the respect of the pupils, and capable of gathering the children into common interest groups through affection and commitment. They need to make demands on the children which become demands the children make on themselves. Each teacher receives a supplement of 900 dong for the school year, and the same goes for the managers.

The psychology of children outside the school system

Although these children share the characteristics of other schoolchildren, they often face conflicts between personal and educational needs. On the whole, they are active, lively children and prefer energetic pursuits and close relationships. They are often unused to reflecting on the consequences of their behaviour and are motivated by immediate, practical considerations. A survey of the children revealed that 48% did not want to study.

In consequence, distinctive psychological methods are required for educating them. Affection and commitment are essential as they are in need of love and care. They need concrete results in their work, in accordance with their practical approach. A pleasant, happy and lively environment is required to draw them into education and community activity, avoiding tense and artificial situations which they cannot accept. The children prefer singing, acting and listening to popular music and their preferences are respected. They need to be rewarded and assessed for their efforts and classroom results in a fair way.

Working with these children means caring for their self-respect, despite their young age. Criticism can lead to further truancy, often also entailing truancy by their friends, as a show of support. The child's personal life

is not interfered with, since attendance means a desire to correct their faults and living conditions.

Difficulties

Because this scheme has been successful, both in the children's eyes and in society's terms, there has been a negative reaction from parents who try to keep their children out of school. The city has provided security, normal education and activites for the children in a very effective way, but the school roll and hours must be maintained. Various organisations in the city have been mobilised to help with this. Other difficulties have been identified:

- Setting up a curriculum requires further investment and improvements are much needed, in terms of making the curriculum simpler and more flexible.
- Teaching materials for this group of children require investment in terms of money and expertise, which causes problems for the city, especially as regards teacher training and the lack of expert help in compiling teaching material and drawing up a syllabus.
- Appropriate equipment is not available.
- This group of pupils requires proper management, through scientific research into the pupil's psychological circumstances and their moral and educational development needs to be elaborated.
- Evening class teachers receive poor remuneration and also work in day school, which makes their task very heavy.

Initial results

Most of the children outside the school system carry on into elementary school, thanks to the efforts of the city education department and the city as a whole. This also represents a creative task on the part of the education authority during the first few years after liberation: a new educational administration was built up.

In statistical terms the results are most encouraging as shown below.

	No. of young people outside mainstream school system	No. of young people in special evening classes	No. moving on to main-stream primary schools	No. moving on to mainstream secondary schools
1981-82	70,048 (12.4%)	64,452	41,164	500
1982-83	72,088 (11.2%)	63,268	37,283	1,320
1983-84	74,890 (11.3%)	61,307	39,221	1,186

This difficult group of pupils previously threatened the city's security, but has now been brought back into the education system and stability has returned. According to police department figures, child crime decreased by 10% after the schools were established.

On an individual basis, this type of schooling has provided the children with an opportunity of acquiring not only an education, but also the ability to participate in social and community activity.

YUGOSLAVIA

Vojvodina: improving vocational approaches to education.

The autonomous socialist province of Vojvodina had, at the time of the 1981 census, some 2 million inhabitants, including persons of 26 different nationalities. More than 20% of them were born in other areas of Yugoslavia. The province comprises some 9% of the total population of the country and 22% of the population of the Republic of Serbia, of which it is part. The area of the province (which is in the north-east of the country adjoining Hungary and Romania) is some 21,000 square kilometres. It is one of the most urbanised areas of the country, with just over half of its population living in towns, of which Novi Sad, the provincial capital, is the largest, with over a quarter of a million inhabitants.

Some 600,000 people are employed in the labour force. Over the last decade, the number of women in the labour force has grown steadily, so that by 1982 they numbered more than 200,000. In recent years a number of labour market problems have made their appearance, in particular related to matching the qualifications held by young people leaving full-time education to the vacancies available: nevertheless Vojvodina has been less affected than some other parts of the country.

In 1983 there were 47,000 children in pre-school institutions: 85% of children aged 6. Obligatory school attendance lasts 8 years, from age 7 to 15. Primary schooling involved, that year, 200,000 young people in 532 primary schools. In the secondary education system there were 82,000 pupils, in 100 schools, while in the tertiary or higher education system there were 30 institutions, including the university of Novi Sad, catering for a total of 40,000 students.

In the early stages of vocational training (which occur usually during the first two years of secondary school) pupils are taught a 'core curriculum'. This includes general education, social studies, economics, natural science and mathematics, as well as basic manufacturing and technology, thus ensuring that all students receive a broad general education.

Although general in its content and aims, this curriculum also involves pupils in practical productive work and in optional, leisure-time activities which are often orientated towards education for employment.

The core curriculum was one of the major institutional innovations resulting from the early stages of educational reform in Yugoslavia, ten years ago. It provided nearly all young people with extended general education and permitted them to choose a job at a more mature age (at the age of 16 or 17). The educational level they attained allowed the young to become more widely and appropriately informed on the world of work, especially through taking part in productive work in school workshops and outside farms. They learned to handle tools, instruments and machinery. While training, they acquired the rudiments of modern technology and technical processes, became familiar with basic production stages and socio-economic relationships within manufacturing as well as in society.

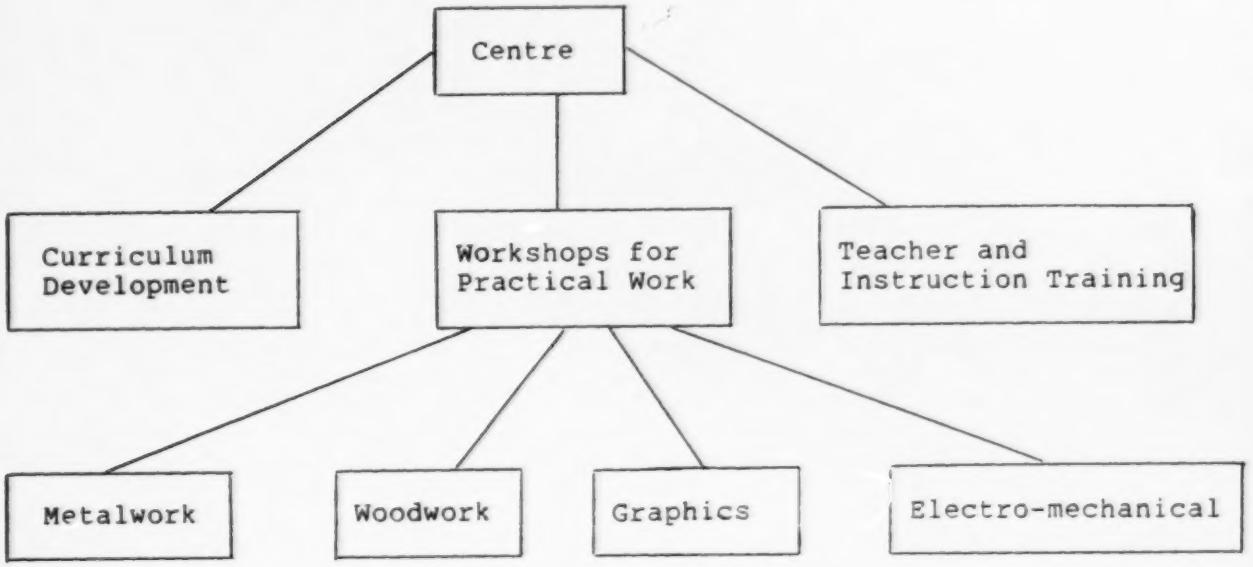
Whether the core curriculum reached its stated objectives depended on local socio-economic conditions, the equipment available in the school, the training and skill levels of the teachers, and the help offered by outside companies.

Curricula linking manufacturing and technical subjects play a very specific role in general vocational training, technical education and education for work. Such curricula exist in several republics and provinces of the Yugoslav Federation, sometimes taking up 20% of the timetable in the first and second years of secondary school, with half the teaching occurring in school classrooms, workshops and laboratories, and the other half, on-site, in outside companies. The curriculum is taught in three phases. Firstly, there is a theoretical background (provided by teachers) on the principles and laws governing productive work. Then there is practical work in school laboratories and workshops, and thirdly, work in outside firms.

The town of Novi Sad has set up a Centre for the Improvement of Basic Technical and Manufacturing Education, with the objective of applying this curriculum as effectively as possible. The Centre is a joint effort by the secondary schools, the town's education authorities and local firms.

The Centre's basic aims are to organise the practical and productive work activities in its workshops, and also in firms, as well as working to improve, through training, the teaching skills needed.

Organization Diagramme of the Centre



The curriculum and organization sections are in charge of developing a workplan for the centre each year, including practical and productive work and the teacher training component. This year the plan involves the participation of some 500 groups, with about 7,000 pupils, who attend courses in the workshops and go on placement in firms.

In the workshops, the pupils become familiar with technical processes, and with the use and handling of selected tools, machines and installations. They also take part in practical productive work. Although the pupils are in the early stages of vocational training, and consequently undertake only low-level tasks, they also go out to a number of factories or help manufacture teaching-aids for primary schools.

The teacher training department provides courses for teachers and teachers' assistants (throughout the school year) and also prepares teaching materials and documentation. The teachers, individually or in groups, use this material to prepare lessons. Young teachers in particular receive help from tutors (mentors) and regional counsellors on manufacturing and technical subjects.

Thirteen staff members carry out the Centre's work, of whom ten are engaged in practical work with pupils. Such complex educational activity with large numbers of pupils cannot be done without close collaboration by the Centre with other teachers and school administrations as well as with outside companies. For this reason, school teachers also take part in each stage of the Centre's and the firms' work.

Centre activities are funded through the educational department and secondary schools on the basis of its workplan, but some of the firms with which the Centre collaborates also help it, from time to time, with materials and equipment.

When theoretical and practical teaching has finished in school and at the Centre, pupils are sent to firms to do practical work. Once they are familiar with the technological and manufacturing processes in the factory, pupils are assigned specific tasks, through which, with the help of teachers and workers, they gradually learn abour production work. During the school year, pupils change jobs and firms several times.

In-depth analysis and the experience of teachers and tutors confirm the effectiveness of the scheme's aims. Core curriculum pupils acquire technical skills, learn about modern technology and basic processes, and become involved in practical and productive work. The latter introduces them to the world of work, to the organisation and economics of firms, to social life and self-management and enables them to develop a positive attitude to work, whilst enabling them to make a more informed career choice.

Research also reveals the positive effect of this type of scheme. One study*of 514 pupils, found that, with regard to the positive effects of engaging in productive work, the largest number mentioned the realisation of the need to become professionally qualified (58%), the development of familiarity with machinery and its handling (57%) as well as improved understanding of the social experience of work (working with classmates, feeling socially useful, working alongside adult workers). On the negative side, pupils most often mentioned the monotony of tasks assigned to them (35%), the small number of jobs (32%) and the lack of opportunity to be creative at work.

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*Note: see reference (19) on page 61.

Nearly half the students questioned reported that their attitude to work had changed for the better after participating in productive work (47%); 35% considered that the influence of this experience had been 'major', whereas only 16% felt the opposite.

An assessment of the effect of pupils' participation in productive work was also made through the work force in the firms, to determine the extent to which they felt the pupils were interested in productive work. From a sample of 480 workers, it appeared that pupils are seen, in the majority, as having a positive attitude, with only 9% expressing a view that pupils had negative attitudes.

Enquiries to determine the pupils' views on the workforce's attitudes within the firm towards those on placement revealed that 71% felt that workforce attitudes were positive; with only 2% of the pupils describing the workers' attitude as unsatisfactory. Similar results emerged from another report*: it found that 76% of pupils are pleased with the workers' behaviour towards young people on placement and only 1% spoke of workers refusing to collaborate.

Despite these positive reactions, relatively few pupils (30%) opt for a job in manufacturing. Their favourable views, and the interest they show in productive work after they have taken part in the scheme while at school, do not imply that they will choose manufacturing as a career.

Overall, the results of the research quoted indicate some of the positive effects of pupils' participation in productive work during their secondary schooling. A more thorough evaluation of the real effects of this training would require, however, further specific and scientific research.

Detailed analysis of the core curriculum and pupils' experience of its application have revealed some flaws. At school, theoretical teaching is often too verbal, without enough scope for laboratory demonstration and experiment, and for developing an understanding of technological methods. This is mostly due to lack of equipment in schools, particularly in the more remote districts. Practical and productive work in workshops, although it interests a substantial proportion of pupils and is eagerly carried out, is given only four sessions

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*Note: see reference (20) page 61.

with a limited timetable, and this is insufficient if pupils are to be drawn to technical and manufacturing trades But the major flaws in the method appear while the pupils are on placement in firms. There have been problems in matching students to jobs, an (occasional) lack of understanding on the firms' part regarding the needs of the students, and difficulties in organising and taking on a large number of pupils. All these factors affect the core curriculum's ability fully to encompass technical and manufacturing education.

The problem mentioned with regard to technical and work-based training have influenced the extent to which the core curriculum has been able to achieve its aims. Specifically, extended education has incited pupils towards further education rather than towards productive work. The general cultural basis of the core curriculum has also directly acted such as to decrease vocational training in secondary schools. Lastly, for about 25% of secondary school pupils, the core curriculum proved too difficult, leading to failure among some pupils, who then ended up without qualifications or a job.

The problems inherent in the raising of the school leaving age and the development of the core curriculum require a determined approach if they are to be dealt with. The changes needed include the setting up of a wide range of vocational training programmes; allowing young people to opt for these after primary school (8 years); transferring the core curriculum elements, partially at least, into the third and fourth year of secondary schools; and making vocational training available from the first year onwards. However, the general knowledge content of the core curriculum would remain, alongside its general technical training, as one of the essential features of early secondary schooling.

ZIMBABWE

Training for cooperatives

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country in which 25% of the labour force in 1983 was employed in agriculture which also provides the livelihood and the occupation of that half of the total population who are traditional peasant farmers. However, crop farming in most areas is so risky (because of soil and climatic conditions) that most young people prefer to seek paid employment rather than stay in agriculture. On the industrial side, mining has played an important part in the national economy, which is characterised by a dualism: a sophisticated modern sector exists side by side with subsistence farming. The modern sector is not expanding fast enough to absorb young people seeking to enter the labour market, while the subsistence peasant economy does not generate paid employment for them.

The total population is 7.5 million and it is growing at the rate of 3.6% per annum, one of the fastest rates in the world. 50% of the population is below 15 years of age. The numbers passing through the schools is increasing rapidly. In 1980 there were 12,000 school-leavers, in 1984 76,000. By 1990 it is estimated that there will be 400,000.

The country has been torn by a prolonged war of liberation, where the children and young people were in the forefront of the struggle. Victory, however, has brought both joys and its problems. Among the problems are those of the young people, many of whom sacrificed their education and training to serve with the freedom fighters who enabled a free and independent Zimbabwe to be established in 1980. Many of them learned other lessons whey they left their country for the refugee centres or training camps in neighbouring countries, not only those involved in fighting but also ideas of liberty, equality, collective responsibility and cooperation.

They returned to a country where a new struggle has to be pursued - for development, for employment, for growth with equity. **It is necessary to start with an assessment of the labour market, and of job opportunities for young people, and then build an educational programme in consequence. A theoretical educatirnal concept may lead to a labour market wich does not exist.**

Even before the struggle there had been one or two local initiatives in pre-independence Zimbabwe which had, despite the efforts of the authorities to restrict or close them down, shown the way in which co-operation could be multi-racial and productive. For a 10-year period a first

experiment was made on mission land at Rusape: there was a collective farm, small holdings, adult education and training on-the-job. Inevitably it became identified with political aspirations and, in 1959, it was shut down in an emergency declared by the government, who also detained in prison. A few years later the first Cold Comfort Farm came into being as did the Nyafarn Development Company, both in so-called 'European' areas, but both dedicated to growth with equity, to co-operation and to equal rights in working out a pattern of development where people share a common life and learn together. For a second period of some 10 years they managed to survive, though under continuous harassment from the authorities. This period was one of learning by doing, by a group of young men and women who have subsequently put the lessons they learnt to practical use, as they are now to be found among the leading national figures of free Zimbabwe.

But in 1970 the leaders of the Cold Comfort Farm were imprisoned and in one case deprived of citizenship and expelled. The organisation itself was banned as unlawful by the regime. During the later stages of the armed struggle Nyafaru, too, was closed down.

Within the first five years of freedom, Zimbabwe has seen the creation of scores of co-operatives, as the young people, released from the military struggle have banded together to provide employment for themselves. Many have formed agricultural co-operatives, in some cases on land made available by the government, elsewhere on small holdings purchased with their demobilisation allowance. Others have started butcheries, cafes, small supermarkets, take-away food outlets, sewing co-operatives, especially those making school uniforms, and carpentry co-operatives to make school furniture. Other co-operatives have come into existence in printing, in transport, in panel beating, indeed in almost all sectors of the economy where the young people have thought there might be a market niche.

Support has come direct from government through different ministries including Lands, Education, Community Development, and Womens Affairs. A number of other agencies, both public and private, and overseas aid bodies outside Africa, have also provided support. However, an effort to raise substantial financial support from the private enterprise sector within Zimbabwe, made during 1984, failed, apparently because there were still businessmen who were not willing to support their young fellow-countrymen and women who had assisted in and were disadvantaged by the struggle for independence.

One co-operative has adopted both the pattern and the title of a youth scheme initially started in the UK. It is called Harare Instant Muscle. The text of one of its publicity leaflets in reproduced below.

We are a light industrial co-operative society and can provide the following services:

MECHANICS

Repairs, maintenance plus major overhauls on diesel and petrol engines, transmission, brakes, etc., farm machinery and implements.

WELDING

Arc and gas welding on domestic appliances, farm implements, machines, burglar bars, etc.

CARPENTRY

Major and minor repairs for office, domestic, farm,etc. ie roofing, ceiling, doors, beds, kitchen fittings, cupboards etc.

BOOK-KEEPER

We can help you run books of accounts, e.g. cash book, ledger account, journal entries, trial balance, balance sheet, statement of affairs,etc.

DRIVERS

We can provide one Class 2 and one Class 4.

PAINTING

We can change your offices, homes, swimming pools, etc., to look like new.

GENERAL MAINTENANCE

Cleaning yards, offices, lawn mowing, pruning trees, hedges, scientific gardening, etc.

ANY ODD JOB! NAME IT! WE CAN DO IT!

Like many other new initiatives to introduce young people into economic activity, these newly-established co-operatives have had a difficult time, made all the more difficult by lack of resources. The resources that are missing are not only financial, but resources of knowledge and skill, which are often as crucial in determining success or failure. In the case of co-operatives there are needs not only for skills in manual and/or technical fields, but also in management, in human relations and in the sensitive reaction that is needed to make a co-operative venture succeed in an environment which, if not hostile is often short of understanding of what the aims of co-operatives are and how they can be achieved.

Local measures are therefore taken to ensure that these young people, who find themselves faced with new and difficult tasks, can find the education and training they need from a variety of sources. Not all the co-operatives are confined to young teenagers. Just as the freedom struggle was a shared, all-age undertaking, so too the effort to rebuild the country's economy is shared by young and old alike: in some cases they can learn from each other, in others they all need to seek help to add to their skills and experience through more intensive and institutionalised forms of courses and training programmes. Thus Cold Comfort Farm, the pioneer scheme which helped to train leaders even under the previous regime has re-established its activity in a new location, with farming, livestock, carpentry, weaving, maintenance and all the administration that goes with such activities. In weaving and carpentry the essential basis is of 'production with education' inspired in part by the ideas and example of Patrick Van Rensburgh in Botswana. But, as in its first days, the project is closely allied to a primary school, where the numbers have gone up from less than 100 to almost 500. Learning is largely by doing and the community depends on the efforts of each of its members to ensure its survival.

Literacy

Across the broad canvas of co-operatives as a whole, more systematised and large-scale training schemes are brought to bear. Adult literacy programmes, of which there are many in the country, need to be especially applied to co-operatives: one literacy 'animator' is nominated, for example, from each of ten co-operatives and these ten undergo six weeks of training in three two-week phases, returning between each phase to take part in the normal life of their co-operatives and to apply what they have learnt. The training is functional in that it takes place at Simukai, one of the co-operatives near Harare. Thus, the trainees are not destabilised by the strange surroundings of a training centre and the curriculum and materials used are practical and related to life in co-operatives.

Individual Development

Many young people, and those not so young, whose educational careers were interrupted by the war want to continue to learn and to achieve their intellectual potential without having to leave the co-operatives. For them, as for many hundreds of thousands in pursuit of further education, one answer lies in correspondence courses. A 3-day seminar for education secretaries from 17 co-operatives, held at Adelaide Acres, the Harare training centre of the Zimbabwe Project (a non-governmental agency which provides resources and technical assistance for co-operatives and in particular for education and training) showed that, despite the possible conflicts of interest, there was a desire to pursue academic education in areas which have immediate relevance to co-operative activities. To study in the often rigorous working and living conditions of a struggling co-operative is not easy and the students are helped by a number of volunteer teachers who in their free time help the student-cooperators as a gesture of support and solidarity. The Zimbabwe Project pays the out-of-pocket expenses of such teachers, and it also seeks to ensure that the materials provided by the correspondence college relate as closely as possible to the needs of the co-operators, by feeding back the students' comments to the college.

Book-keeping

Failure to keep a check on the financial situation is one of the most frequent causes of the collapse of co-operatives, especially among those with members having little experience of keeping accounts. At a formal level, conventional training courses for book-keepers are provided at the Kushinga-Phikelela School of Business, part of a large training complex with a wide range of development studies, launched under the patronage of the President soon after Zimbabwe attained independence. As an emergency and additional measure a 3-month "crash" course in book-keeping was run for the treasurers of 24 co-operatives. Again, as in the case of more general individual studies, training is supplemented by visits from volunteers, who also include students studying accountancy at Harare Polytechnic.

At Kushingla-Phikelela, members of 21 co-operatives took a 1-year course in 1984 covering not only book-keeping and office practice, but also co-operative adminstration and theory, typewriting and commerce and business calculations. Shorter courses have included a 1-week course to help chairpersons of co-operatives to exercise effective leadership in their societies.

Basic technical skills

Training courses of varying lengths are offered in a number of different cities, some established by the government as general skill training centres, others with the needs of co-operatives especially in mind. They cover many subjects, including agriculture, animal husbandry, horticulture, building and construction, metal and woodwork, sewing, knitting, printing, bookbinding and mechanics. Where possible the skills taught include not only those of actual production, but also the financial planning and record keeping which is vital if these activities are not to be included in a viable co-operative undertaking. The courses vary in duration from several weeks to several months. Recognising the need for, as well as the lack of, adequate child-care facilities at many co-operatives, some members have been sent for training in this field, in order to provide better facilities for children in co-operatives where the traditional extended family form of child care may not be possible, in order to enable young women members to play a full part in the production and administration of their society.

Evaluation

On a countrywide basis a national organisation for co-operatives has been established: OCCZIM (the Organisation of Collective Cooperatives of Zimbabwe). The Ministries of Rural Development, of Labour, Manpower and Social Services, of Youth, Sport and Culture, of Community Development and of Women's Affairs play a major role, and there are also numerous non-governmental and local organisations involved. The total number of members of co-operative societies who have benefited from the many different educational and training opportunities is difficult to estimate. The Zimbabwe Project has designed its educational programme to serve 2,500 people in 30 collectives over a 3-year period, but in a mid-programme assessment, made in the first half of 1985, it found it had already assisted nearly 4,000 in 120 different collective co-operatives. New courses are being added, and new techniques and methodology being worked out through the use of drama, visual animation and writers' workshops.

One of the problems encountered, common to many other efforts to bring education and training to young people living in rural areas, is that they are not always willing to return to their co-operative after training, or, if they return, soon leave. This may be in part because they are not

given the opportunity to exercise their new skills when they return after training, but it may also be because they have been alienated by too long a stay in an apparently more attractive environment. For the future an effort is being made to diminish this effect by reducing the period of time away from the co-operative to the minimum necessary and by encouraging mutual training exchanges between co-operatives as well as by using some of them as training bases.

CONCLUSIONS AND POINTERS

Given that the employment-orientated programmes described in this report are diverse in their settings, objectives, and practices, are there particular lessons, concerning policy and practice, that can be drawn from them? At first sight it might appear that the diversity would defeat any attempt to try to do more than draw lessons which are specific to each particular project: but do more general lessons emerge? To help determine this, and to point also to specific lessons, some notable features of each scheme are now briefly summarised.

Canada

An existing 'social' organisation operating in one municipality has developed, with government funding, a programme of post-school vocational training courses, having also a strong personal development-orientated approach and methodology. These are specifically tailored to meet the needs of disadvantaged young people, the majority of whom did not complete secondary school, and have underprivileged backgrounds, and all of whom are without work. There is a carefully structured curriculum, which blends classroom- and workplace-based learning, and which encourages the young people to make choices and decisions as a complement to more formal discussion and instruction.

Mexico

Here a national youth agency has been engaged, for some years, on a programme which aims to create employment for young people through "unconventional means", including youth enterprises, which are the focus of the case study. There is a strong emphasis on participation by the young people themselves - as one of them put it: 'we have learned to make things for ourselves'. This participatory approach is manifested in many aspects of the programme through which the youth organisation has gone about establishing 'model' youth enterprises (this 'model' approach itself is perhaps significant: it appears to be rooted in the desire to develop, initially, succesful ventures which can serve as both stimulus to and model for, others to follow). A number of national and state bodies participate in providing resources, and the schemes 'have been developed from initiatives which youth organisations themselves have put forward.' Thus, the role of the national organisation has been to stimulate and respond, not to control and

direct. The whole approach has been clearly and carefully structured, in terms of criteria which must be satisfied and stages in the development and establishment process which must be followed in order to qualify for assistance. The importance of staff training is also clearly recognised.

United Kingdom

As in Canada, this scheme developed from an existing organisation, an educational resource centre. As a result of a research programme initiated by young people, and through the active participation of a network of interested and committed people possessing a variety of skills and a range of experience, a scheme of new-technology orientated education, training and employment was formulated. Perseverence was needed to translate ideas into practice, but government finance, from two sources, was obtained. Particular features of this project are the way it caters for the needs of young unemployed school-leavers in the context of provisions for the wider community (thus it is not a 'youth ghetto' and thus it makes maximum possible use of its resources for maximum benefit), and the way it links formal education and training to employment and production. The significance of the scheme is shown by the way it has served as a model and stimulus for a large scale programme of similar schemes.

The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam

The first impressive feature of this scheme, to cater for a very large number of young people staying outside the school system and/or dropping out from it, is the fact that there was at the outset a very detailed knowledge, based on thorough research, of the problem, resulting in a clear statement of what needed to be done. Using limited resources, yet recognising that distinctive provisions were needed if young people were to be attracted to, and remain committed to, any programmes, what is offered makes maximum use of existing resources, both of schools and teachers, yet without the result being a thinly disguised version of the very thing the young have previously rejected. Thus, while using teachers and school premises, the evening classes have activities which blend 'curricular' and 'extra-curricular' content in a distinctive form; as important, they have a style which relies upon teacher enthusiasm, care and commitment, and the principles of self-management, to build up interest. Again, a network of support and administration is apparent, through various committees, councils and working groups.

Yugoslavia

Just as is the case in the Vietnam scheme, the Yugoslavian project is also targetted on improving provisions for young people before they reach the school-leaving age, rather than after it (as is the case in all other examples). But, as in the Canadian and United Kingdom schemes, a strong emphasis on vocational education is apparent. The scheme is significant in that it is a centre designed to secure the maximum impact of a reform of the secondary school curriculum. Curriculum reform, albeit for various reasons and purposes is, in itself, not an unusual phenomenon. But too often, it founders, or achieves only limited adoption and impact in schools and among teachers, for the lack of support and direction. The Yugoslavian centre provides such support and direction to enable and ensure that the curriculum reform has maximum take-up and impact. Its particular emphasis on teacher training is apparent, as is the role its workshops play in providing practical work experience for young people and arranging placements in firms, and the development work it carries out directed to further curriculum reform.

Zimbabwe

Just as curriculum development can be hindered by the lack of adequate support and stimulation, the same can be the case for community and economic development. In Zimbabwe the efforts of young people to create co-operatives have been recognised and responded to in various ways, for, as is noted, 'the resources that are missing are not only financial, but resources of knowledge and skill, which are often as crucial in determining success and failure'. Thus individual and co-operative self-help endeavour has been supported by literacy education, in ways specially tailored to be functional and in familiar surroundings; by correspondence courses, to enable academic and other education to be taken up again; by business and management skills training courses; by technical and vocational skills courses and through more general technical support. Here many organisations and agencies, including a range of government ministries, form a national network of assistance in support of local initiatives.

General lessons

From the above it is clear that there are indeed general lessons (that is, lessons which are apparent from two or more of the projects) which emerge, and a number of these are about a question of universal significance: how to improve the relevance and effectiveness of provision with resources which are limited. These lessons can perhaps best be stated in the form of a memorandum.

M E M O R A N D U M

To: Municipal decision-makers concerned with employment-orientated provisions for disadvantaged youth.

From: The experience of six initiatives in Canada; Mexico; the United Kingdom; Vietnam; Yugoslavia ; and Zimbabwe.

Date: 1985

Subject: Achieving relevance and cost-effectiveness in your provisions.

1. Be prepared to respond to the ideas and initiatives of organisations and agencies working with the young and therefore in close touch with their needs (see: Canada, the United Kingdom).

2. In national or regional programmes there may be no need to consider new and expensive delivery mechanisms: much in the way of good relationships and cost-effectiveness can be achieved by encouraging existing local groups and agencies to act as delivery agents (see: Mexico) and/or make use of existing plant and human resources (see: Vietnam).

3. Ensure a full understanding of the need or the problems being addressed by preliminary research (see: Vietnam, the United Kingdom); a small investment in this may save a costly loss later.

4. Economic and curriculum reform and development requires, if it is to be fully effective, to be linked to and complemented by thoroughgoing support and continuing stimuli (see: Zimbabwe, Yugoslavia, Vietnam).

5. Build networks of people and organisations to supply such support: this is another way of making full use of the skills and resources which clearly exist (see: Zimbabwe, Vietnam, the United Kingdom).

6. Attend to details: clear statements of aims and objectives, of content, of criteria etc, in precise detail help give external clarity and internal purpose (see: Canada, Mexico, the United Kingdom, Yugoslavia).

7. Develop styles and structures which encourage maximum participation by the young people themselves (see: Canada, Mexico, Zimbabwe, Vietnam): this both attracts the young people and involves their skills and resources.

8. Provisions for disadvantaged young people to enable them to become a more effective part of the labour circuit may be usefully introduced within the existing formal education framework, within the post-school informal institutional framework, or in a broader 'adult' community development framework.

9. The forms of education and training as well as the mechanisms and settings within which they are provided, may have to be derived from several different administrative sources. Such resources have to be identified wherever they happen to be located: inter-organisational distance and separatism has to be bridged, whether horizontally (that is inter-departmentally) or vertically (that is, between central and local authorities).

10. A local project, if carefully monitored, can provide the guidelines for an expanded or national programme. However, the policy, content and in particular the administrative and delivery mechanisms of any such broader programme should be so devised as to permit and encourage the maximum possible local involvement and initiative, so as to ensure both that each application is relevant to the local conditions and circumstances, and also that local knowledge, enthusiasm and dedication are utilised to the full.

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